UNITED
NATIONS

CEDAW

Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women

Distr.
GENERAL

CEDAW/C/HUN/3/Add.1
6 December 1995

ORIGINAL: ENGLISH

COMMITTEE ON THE ELIMINATION OF
DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN

CONSIDERATION OF REPORTS SUBMITTED BY STATES PARTIES UNDER ARTICLE 18 OF THE CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN

Third periodic reports of States parties

Addendum

HUNGARY

95-39114 (E) 040196 080196

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I. INTRODUCTION

1. The development of human rights protection under the United Nations has had a crucial influence on the national and international recognition of women's rights, on national jurisdictions and on recognizing de jure women's equality. Initially encompassing civil and political rights, the traditional range of human rights has in the course of its development extended to economic, social as well as cultural rights, which are by nature of critical importance from women's perspective. All international documents on the protection of human rights provide that no discrimination on any grounds, i.e., including sex discrimination, is to be applied in ensuring these rights.

2. Passing through social and political transition, the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, including Hungary, are coping with severe economic constraints. These adversely affect the enforcement of economic, social and cultural rights; the effective recognition of women's rights; and the development of an attitude conducive to the full acknowledgement of female equality.

3. Therefore we deem it important that the Fourth World Conference on Women put on its agenda the issue of uneven development of the world's nations with a special focus on the economic difficulties facing Central and Eastern European countries, together with the negative impacts they have on women's status.

II. CHANGES IN THE STATUS OF WOMEN IN HUNGARY SINCE THE 1980s

A. An overview of the major social and economic changes affecting the status of women

4. The Beijing Fourth World Conference on Women will aim to explore changes in the position of women since the early 1980s and especially 1985, when the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies were formulated. In doing so it will place increased emphasis on areas of particular importance, including women's rights; discrimination against women; the impacts of local conflicts and wars on the female population; as well as related efforts societies and Governments have made to deal with arising problems.

5. The past 10 to 15 years, which are the subject of the overview, have seen substantial changes world wide. They include the collapse of Communist party States of Central and Eastern Europe in 1989 and 1990, and their move away from Socialist planned economies towards the establishment of modern market economies and parliamentary democracies. In evaluating the status of women, the report on Hungary cannot ignore these profound changes in its domestic political set-up.

1. The situation before 1990

6. It is not yet possible to present a complete evaluation of the former Soviet-like system of State socialism, since its effects will not make themselves felt until a longer period has passed. However, there is a great

deal of specific data and information available concerning women's position and related changes. Under State socialism, the "equality of women" existed for a long time as an unquestionable political objective. It was primarily based on the right to a gainful occupation as the most important criterion. The question of the importance of the roles ideology, the vast labour demand generated by extensive industrialization, and the political endeavour to maximize control over individuals and minimize wages through the "two-earners model", played as underlying motives is currently subject to debate. When and how much women needed an opportunity to work and when and to what extent it was inflicted upon them by the State is another issue under discussion at present. It is likely that there were innumerable factors, named and unnamed, that contributed to the final result. Elements of imposition, such as an increased workload on women and weakening domestic functions, etc., undeniably had a negative impact. That continued discrimination against women, manifested itself in the structure of female employment and in wages lower than those of men, is a fact. Having said that, the opinion held by most today is that, on balance, there was an actual improvement in the position of women. Their involvement in economic activities did help improve the financial position of families, and in most cases work outside the domestic setting meant an enrichment of women's lives as well as alleviating to a great extent female poverty. In addition, particularly in the case of single women and those drawing a pension in their own right, it reduced their exposure to the family and to males.

7. Another cornerstone of female equality was the declaration and enforcement of the right to study. Even though the structure of education broken down by gender did not change sufficiently (with either female or, more often than not, male predominance in various occupations), in secondary and higher education the proportion of women did reach, or (by rising over 50 per cent) even exceeded, their actual proportion.

8. Equal rights for women, political and personal (domestic) alike, were governed by legislation. Although women's involvement in politics remained limited, up-to-date legislation on domestic rights, the emergence of the opportunity to obtain divorce, and the abolishment of discrimination against children born out of wedlock did signify real achievements.

9. Many of the rights mentioned above, primarily the right to work, were enforced through a subsidized system of child-care institutions and maternity benefits. It is to be noted that the various forms of assistance for child care at home, which were gradually expanded from the late 1960s, were no longer meant to promote female equality. It was the high running costs of child-care institutions and endeavours to promote childbirth that played a major role in their introduction. Also, the fear of unemployment and the intended way to handle it (e.g., through the central regulation of payrolls), which had emerged in relation to what was known as "the new economic mechanism", are also not to be ignored. Nor did an exaggerated emphasis on the role of women within the family foster female equality in society. On the other hand, the new forms of social assistance were undoubtedly instrumental in bettering the status of women, in particular of those working shifts, and hence they became highly popular.

10. Apart from that it has to be mentioned that, perhaps with the exception of the first few years, women themselves did little in the way of promoting their own rights - it was politics that would take the initiative. There was no one issue of importance, including "the female issue", that was to be made subject to public discourse or political debates, which prevented the raising of public awareness. Hence, despite the objective emancipation of women, many conservative elements continued to persist in the minds of men and women, just as in relations between them.

2. The situation after 1990

11. The countries in transition have been surprisingly quick to establish political structures typical of modern democracies (i.e., fundamentals of a multi-party system, free elections, the rule of law, etc.).

12. With that, political and civil rights, which previously existed de jure, have become a reality. To date the greatest benefit of the change of the political system has been freedom, which gives women an opportunity for freer organization, increased consciousness and wider publicity. That women, for the time being, tend to take this opportunity to a lesser degree than they could or should (despite continued prejudice and discrimination against them in many instances) is a different matter. For example, it is striking that there should be so few Western-type feminist organizations in operation. The level of activity of these kinds of organizations is far lower than in neighbouring countries.

13. Factors that primarily influence the status of women are related to ideology, the economy and party politics.

14. Economic decline in Eastern Europe has reached critical proportions. In the majority of these countries, the rate of output loss and unemployment growth is higher than during the depression in 1929-1931. There is mounting inflationary pressure. The level of economic development measured in per capita gross domestic product continues to fall behind that in Western Europe. For instance, over the past 120 years Hungary's gross domestic product level stood at 45-50 per cent of the Western European average - as opposed to the current 30 per cent. As a rule unemployment affects women more than it does men. With men outnumbering women in terms of registered unemployment, Hungary is an exception in this regard. At the same time there are many females who have left the world of work unregistered. The reluctance of private employers to hire expectant women or mothers with babies is an added difficulty in finding employment. At any rate, by now Hungary has reached a point where the two-earners-model is no longer prevalent. In more than 50 per cent of families there are now single or no earners at all. As a result of economic decline, about two thirds of the population have been exposed to falling living standards. Those afflicted the worst include the unemployed families with children, and women raising children on their own. The status of pensioners has worsened to a lesser degree than in the surrounding countries, but single elderly women and those on limited old-age pensions or survivor's pensions subsist way below the poverty line. In other words, female poverty has reappeared in many different forms and to a much greater degree. With an

increasing number of women failing to obtain an entitlement to pension, old-age female poverty is bound to rise. The objective deterioration of the general situation is being accompanied by a heightened sense of insecurity - a natural corollary of landslide changes, and perhaps of sudden turns in politics, which makes recovery none the easier.

15. Having had no exposure to anything other than the previous dominant ideology, the region has been particularly influenced by the world-wide spread of neo-conservative and neo-liberal currents of ideas. Apart from religion, Hungary's first freely elected Government restored the traditional family with the mother caring for hearth and home as the centrepiece of its values - as opposed to the ideological pressure in the 1950s for female employment. The already wide range of maternity benefits were further expanded while, with previous State prevalence gone, there was a substantial decrease in subsidies for child care institutions. About half the creches were closed. Although there was a limited reduction in nursery capacity, families were charged more for meals both there and in schools. As a result, the majority of impoverished families are now no longer able to rely on these facilities.

16. The economic stabilization measures that the current socialist liberal Government is forced to take are not expected to yield quick improvement in any areas.

B. National and international recognition and enforcement of the rights of women

17. Hungary has acceded to all international conventions related to the status of women, and has done so, with few exceptions, unconditionally.

18. A central idea, and in fact a provision, of the Constitution of Hungary is to ensure equal rights through measures aimed to eliminate the inequality of opportunities. Under article 66 of the Constitution, "the Republic of Hungary guarantees equality for both men and women with regard to exercising all civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights".

19. In compliance with the Constitution and related international obligations, Hungarian laws concerning civil and political as well as economic, social and cultural rights guarantee women these rights without discrimination and de jure.

20. However, de facto recognition of their rights is undeniably hindered, given a background of economic constraints induced by the transition process. These economic hurdles, which by nature impede the effective enforcement of social and cultural rights, have a direct and unfavourable effect on the status of women.

21. An additional obstacle to acknowledging de facto women's rights is the fact that neither before nor after the change of the political system did any Government have a concept for female policies. Nor are issues concerning the female population on the agenda under the current Government. During the period in question, no separate government agency responsible for women's issues has been set up.

22. Prior to the change of the political system, the need to create equal opportunities for women was declared in what was known as the "female policy resolutions". Following the change, the issue came to be included in the programme of the Human Policy Cabinet.

23. Raising women's awareness of their rights is done as part of education on human rights. Special mention must be made of the activities and publications of the Hungarian Centre for Human Rights (in particular its periodical Acta Humana, and regular translation of publications issued by the United Nations and the Council of Europe).

24. Based on the recommendation of the United Nations and its publication entitled ABC Education on Human Rights, many primary and secondary schools have included human rights education in their curricula. Similarly, human rights are taught as part of international law at the law institutes of universities (in Budapest, Miskolc, Pécs, Szeged). It is a stand-alone subject at the Budapest Economics University's Institute of International Relations and the College for Public Administration (also in Budapest).

25. Awareness-raising concerning women's rights has as an essential element a range of related activities of female non-governmental organizations, which started their operations in the late 1980s.

C. Organizations representing the interests of women

26. As was mentioned above, no government agency existed before the change of the political system, nor has any since been established to handle women's policies. No Government before the change formulated an official women's policy action agenda, nor has the current Government drafted a specially targeted programme to date. At the same time, realizing the importance of the problems concerning the status of women, the Government is determined to deal with the situation. It is now considering a plan for one of the ministries to include in its jurisdiction the responsibility for a women's policy agenda in the near future.

27. The Government appointed the Minister of Labour as its official representative at the Fourth World Conference on Women. Accordingly, it is the Ministry of Labour's responsibility to coordinate preparation for the conference. On 1 March 1995, the Hungarian National Committee, which includes representatives of ministries, parliament, all sides involved in collective bargaining, non-governmental organizations, women's organizations as well as the church, was established.

28. In 1985 and the years before, there were no non-governmental organizations in Hungary dealing with the issue of female equality, de jure or de facto. Allowances due to women as a natural right were administered through State women's organizations operating under the one-party system. Unions and cooperatives set up in-house women's committees, which took care of women's issues arising at work. Those women who for some reason did no longer work, or were not yet employed, had a chance to convene social gatherings under the regional committees of a body known as the Patriotic People's Front.

29. Yielding to increasingly pressing social needs, legislation in the late 1980s allowed the establishment of non-governmental organizations.

30. The church had already been operating religious women's groups on a voluntary basis, which in the late 1980s became increasingly active, especially in providing for the elderly and in charity work.

31. The year 1989 saw the emergence of political opposition groupings, which triggered a process of erosion within old-style organizations, including the National Council of Hungarian Women, a body under the control of the ruling party. In June 1989, the Council dissolved itself to pave the way for establishing a new type of women's unity. This is manifested in the Alliance of Hungarian Women, which incorporates as many as 40 women's groups as founders and 600 individual members representing 10,000 women altogether. The Alliance serves as an umbrella organization undertaking to represent and protect women's interests as well as acting as the focal point in liaising with the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women.

32. After a somewhat shaky start, the fledgling civil society was formed and is now operating a wide variety of voluntary organizations standing for a range of different interests. The new groupings offer support, security and new objectives to those in need of these opportunities. In addition, their activities have the special goal of preventing processes that might cause the standard of living to fall.

33. Women's organizations of an alternative nature have also emerged but so far remain marginal for several reasons, even if their values are widely publicized through the media and various events they stage.

34. Difficulties facing women's organizations primarily stem from their limited access to funding and information. Despite operational hindrances, however, communication between the various groups has been established, and they have also been involved in several joint activities.

35. Their cooperation was manifested, among other things, in the debate on the right to abortion prior to the passing of the Embryo Protection Bill. The debate ended in a position reached through consensus, which was subsequently accepted by Parliament itself. Another example is the discussion over raising the retirement age, in which the female population, through the unions' women's groups, is bringing pressure to bear on the Government to apply a gradual approach to the issue and ensure women a wider scope for decision-making.

36. Each women's organization, within the limits of their resources and almost without exception, is involved in supporting families and individuals who for some reason have to cope with hardships. Their activities in this respect include collecting charity donations, extending free legal advice, or providing shelter for those escaping from violence.

37. Accession to international women's organizations takes place in accordance with the areas of interests of domestic women's groups.

38. All non-governmental organizations call for determining the Government's responsibility for policies on women and, accordingly, the establishment of enabling institutions in order to harmonize legislation and government work.

D. General features of the status of women

1. Demographic features

39. Of Hungary's population of 10.3 million, there are 5.4 million females and 4.9 million males. The population has dropped by 430,000 compared with 1980. This is explained by low fertility and a decreasing number of live births, coupled with high mortality particularly among males between 25 and 59 years of age. Two thirds of the fall in population occurred among men, the rest among women. As a consequence, there is a gradual ageing of the population. At present there are 104 elderly people per 100 children, an increase of 25 over 1980 figures.

40. In 1994, one fifth of the population lived in the capital, Budapest, 44 per cent living in townships and 36 per cent in villages. This is a minor shift (2 per cent) at the expense of villages and in favour of towns outside Budapest. Budapest has a significantly higher number of women per 1,000 men (1,164) than towns (1,085) and villages (1,053).

41. According to the 1990 census, 85.9 per cent of families were full families, i.e., including a couple (married or unmarried) and perhaps children; in 12 per cent of couple-based families the wife was an active earner; in 80 per cent of single-parent families it was the mother who lived with the child (or children); in 26.5 per cent of all households women acted as principal earners; and three fifths of the latter type of households were single-person households with mainly elderly women living on their own.

42. High mortality is a particularly adverse phenomenon attendant on Hungary's population situation. In 1993, male life expectancy at birth was 64.5 years on average, which was down by two years compared with the late 1960s. Although the outlook for women is better the rate of increase in their life expectancy has been slower in recent years. In 1980, female life expectancy at birth was 72.7 years, which rose to 73.8 years by 1993.

2. Health condition of women

43. Mortality figures indicate that the health condition of women has improved only in certain areas since 1980. The reasons for that are in part related to the institutional situation. Institutional restructuring and a reduction in health-care spending in real terms have had an adverse impact on the health status of women. Funding constraints imply a falling number of health-care facilities, including occupational health-care units. In addition, environmental pollution and a lifestyle determined by social and economic conditions also have their part to play in the deterioration of women's health.

44. The rising rate of chronic respiratory diseases such as asthma and allergies among women and children, currently 10 per cent, is evidence of a connection with environmental pollution, and especially with air pollution.

45. The primary causes of female deaths include coronaries, cerebro-vascular disease and various tumorous diseases.

46. In 1980, 800,000 women were smear tested for cancer, while in 1993 this figure was 750,000, which means that the average screening rate of 30-69 year-old women is 33 per cent.

47. Over the past 15 to 20 years, alcohol consumption by women has doubled. While formerly the ratio of female/male alcoholism was 1 to 8, it currently stands at 1 to 4, which translates into 120,000 female alcoholics of a total of approximately 600,000.

48. Drug abuse is not typical of adult females. However, overdosing sedatives and sleeping pills is prevalent among women. The high proportion of young females on drugs gives rise to concern, being currently 30 to 40 per cent. There are an estimated 27,000 young substance abusers in Hungary.

49. Some 40 per cent of the total population and over 50 per cent of adults smoke. The proportion of female smokers is roughly the same as that of male smokers.

50. Hungary is among countries moderately infected with the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV). In 1994, those registered as HIV positives included 311 adults and 26 children, of whom 28 were adult women and 4 were girls. The occurrence of anaemia was 8-10 per cent among pregnant women in 1980, which had dropped to 5-6 per cent by 1991. The rate of anaemia among non-pregnant women is 10-12 per cent.

51. Health-care problems directly concerning women include infant mortality. This figure has been gradually improving over recent years. The number of infant deaths within one year of birth per 1,000 live births was 12.5 in 1993, as opposed to 14.8 and 23.2 in 1990 and 1980, respectively.

52. In Hungary, protection against unwanted pregnancy is traditionally a responsibility of women. There is progressive improvement in this field. By the late 1980s, 73 per cent of women used some kind of protection against pregnancy. Half of them took oral contraceptives, and the number of those using intra-uterine devices (IUDs) doubled in the early 1980s. Although surveys suggest that the proportion of women resorting to termination as the only way to control pregnancies has fallen to 1 per cent, the number of induced abortions are still high. In Hungary, it reached an all-time high in the late 1960s with 134 terminations per 100 live births. This figure gradually decreased to 73 terminations per 100 live births by 1992. Since the introduction of the Embryo Protection Act (which apart from providing for protection of the embryo allows terminations for women in crisis situations) there has been a further 15 per cent drop in the number of induced abortions.

3. Social security, forms of family support and social assistance

53. In Hungary, the transition process has led to economic instability, long-term and widespread unemployment and an increasing scarcity of resources available for social purposes. These are the conditions determining the extent and quality of social services for women.

54. Under social security, as the core institution of social policy, various services based on pension and health insurance are rendered for the majority of women.

55. About 8 per cent of women who have reached retirement age are not entitled to pension in their own right. Social support is available for them, however, partly through the social security system and partly through social assistance. The idea of raising the retirement age for women to 55 years is currently subject to public debate. Over recent decades, services rendered by the social security system have been extended to an ever-increasing portion of society against the continued diminishing of revenues caused by demographic and economic factors. Therefore there is little chance of dismissing the idea of a higher female retirement age - the discussion basically revolved around the scheduling of its introduction. Similarly, public discussion is focused on another measure planned to reform the pension system. This is related to establishing a three-tier pension system with the following ingredients: the first component would be due as base pension on a natural entitlement basis financed from the central budget; the second component would be paid against contributions from wages; and a complementary third element would be available on a voluntary self-insurance basis.

56. The health insurance system is struggling with severe funding constraints. The population, including women, is generally in poor health by international standards. In addition, the soaring prices of health care services further aggravate the financial standing of the health insurance system. The situation requires a reasonable reallocation and more efficient use of scarce resources.

57. Under the Constitution of the Republic of Hungary "mothers are entitled to support and protection before and after childbirth, as relevant regulations provide". The purpose of support and protection is to ensure that mothers raise their children in their families in appropriate financial and health conditions. The State assumes a share of child-care costs. Given the unfavourable age composition of the Hungarian population, the support of motherhood and child care is a social and government priority. The range of supportive and protective measures constitute a complex system.

58. There exists a nation-wide network of institutions to help women before and after childbirth. Expectant mothers enjoy special protection at work. During pregnancy they are exempted from certain jobs that would put their health at risk. During pregnancy and until the child is one year old there is a ban on making a mother redundant.

59. There is a nation-wide network of paediatricians and child-care nurses, who help mothers care for their babies appropriately. Child-care nurses visit young

mothers on a regular basis, especially in the first year of motherhood. Paediatricians check children's health until the age of 16 years.

60. For social spending to be cut and economic stability restored there is a need for a social policy providing a minimum income and primary health care only for the poorest segments of society. Reforming the family support system is high on the agenda. Mothers have so far been entitled to the following forms of financial support: pregnancy allowance from the fourth month of pregnancy; maternity benefit during maternity leave; and, on the latter's expiry, child-care allowance until the child is two years old.

61. A maternity benefit is due for 20 weeks, its amount being equal to the previous average income. A child-care allowance is proportionate to income while a child-care benefit is a fixed amount. If appropriate conditions are in place, mothers raising three or more children are entitled to a child-care subsidy paid by the State for five years when the youngest child has reached three years of age. This form of support allows the mother to choose between child-rearing and work. The father is also entitled to subsidized child-rearing leave when the child is one year old. In addition, based on the child's natural entitlement, families raising children draw a family allowance.

62. The cost implication of these support mechanisms far outweigh the country's financial capabilities. Intended reforms will bring about substantial changes in a system which families have taken for granted as reliable and predictable for many decades. The reforms will place an increased emphasis on households' financial standing and will inevitably afflict certain segments of the female population, in particular those with higher than average income.

63. In sum, it can be concluded that considering the economy's capabilities women, and among them mothers, enjoy a wide range and variety of support, by domestic and international standards alike.

E. Women in politics

64. Women's involvement in politics occurs through a range of various institutions: through political parties in the legislative and the executive branches of power, and through representative organizations. It is difficult to compare the situation before and after the change of the system, given the differing social systems and available opportunities in the two periods.

65. Prior to the change of the political system, the female movement had no real involvement in the women's policy or the enforcement of equal rights. Female emancipation was interpreted on the grounds of the Marxist-Leninist ideology and was incorporated into the political machinery serving to perpetuate the system. This explains the emergence and formal entitlements for women (and other segments of society, including the young and the working class) in the sphere of politics. This process resulted from economic necessity (i.e., efforts to realize full employment) rather than a female endeavour to gain genuine equal rights.

Women in Parliament and local municipalities

66. It was not until 1945 that women obtained universal suffrage. From then on the number of female Ministers of Parliament grew steadily until 1980, when their nearly one-third proportion in the National Assembly was among the highest in the world. Female Ministers of Parliaments began to lessen in number in 1985 and the tendency continued after the changing of the system. The first free elections (1990) ensured seats for 27 women (7 per cent) which remained unchanged until 1994. The 1994 elections raised seats for women to 43 (11.2 per cent).

67. The change in the political system made no difference in terms of handling women's issues or the opportunities of women Ministers of Parliament. In both eras, women were (and under the new system have remained) active only within the scope of movement assigned to them by society, never overstepping its boundaries.

68. In the first free elections women were handicapped from the outset, with a mere 8.5 per cent of individual candidates being women. As elections proceeded their chances against male candidates grew increasingly remote, which added to their disadvantage. As few as 8.5 per cent of female candidates managed to get into Parliament as opposed to 11.3 per cent of males.

69. The 1994 elections saw a forward move in the position of women, with parliamentary parties having put up 1.5 per cent more female candidates. The number and percentage of elected women increased over one and a half times. Women won 15.5 per cent of the seats, and men won 13.8 per cent. With an 11.2 per cent proportion of female Ministers of Parliament, Hungary's position has improved by international comparison.

70. More women got in from party lists, especially national lists, than from individual constituencies. While in 1990 four fifths of women won their seats from party lists, this figure dropped to two thirds in 1994. There was a substantial increase in voter confidence placed in female candidates, since as opposed to under one fifth of women getting elected directly in individual constituencies more than one third of them received the most votes as individual contestants.

71. There are few female office-holders in Parliament. Since 1994, however, there have been two female Deputy Speakers of the House in office, which is a major step forward. Female Ministers of Parliament have a strong presence in the Parliamentary Committees on Social, Family and Education Issues. The women's issue has not been, and is still not, on the agenda of any committees. As a result of an initiative launched by all female Ministers of Parliament in all the parliamentary parties, a joint subcommittee on women's issues has been set up as part of the Committee on Human Rights, Religious and Minority Issues, which is an important development. The subcommittee will examine bills submitted to Parliament from the women's perspective, bearing in mind their interests. It is going to begin its work at the autumn parliamentary session.

72. There is a wider scope of movement for women in local elections. Through personal contacts they stand a better chance of overcoming prejudice and being

successful. In the 1980s, 27-32 per cent of local and regional council delegates were women. In and after the 1990 local elections, their proportion both among candidates and later in municipal assemblies dropped equally to 16 per cent. In small settlements women succeeded better than in major towns in winning seats in municipalities (getting 16 per cent and 13 per cent, respectively). In standing for high-profile offices women are at a disadvantage against men. In 1985 8 per cent and in 1990 3 per cent of mayor's offices in towns were filled by female candidates. In the same two years this proportion in small settlements was 15 and 10 per cent, respectively.

Women in Government, diplomacy and public administration

73. Typically, in the period subject to the overview women have always been underrepresented in the Government. In the 1980s, they were allocated portfolios traditionally considered "female" (e.g., light industry, health care). Following the change of the political system the Government included, temporarily, one female minister without portfolio. The existing Government also has one female member, the Minister of Labour. In the ministries, the proportion of State secretaries and under-secretaries has been 9.2 per cent since 1990.

74. Women play an important role in public administration. In 1994, 68 per cent of public servants and 42 per cent of senior civil servants were women, while on average the proportion of women in managerial positions is 30 per cent. The prevalence of women in public administration results from their improving education, traditional occupational bias and the relative devaluation of public service linked with falling wages. One of the marked impacts that changing ownership relations have on genders is shown in the rearrangement of the occupational structure between the private and public sectors. Female prevalence (67 per cent) in badly paid public administrative jobs against male predominance (97 per cent) in key economic positions indicates a relative deterioration of the status of women.

75. Over the past 10 years the Ministry of Foreign Affairs has employed 88 female diplomats, which translates into 6-8 per cent. At present, their proportion is 8.6 per cent (58 women), of whom barely one third (38) work abroad. During the period under review only two (3 per cent have made to the top of the diplomatic corps. At present there are two female ambassadors, one of them at the Hungarian Embassy in Beijing. The Council of Europe's Commission on the Equality of Genders is currently chaired by a Hungarian woman.

Women in political parties and their managing bodies

76. Before the change of the system women represented 35-45 per cent of the total membership of the Hungarian Socialist Workers' Party (MSZMP), the then Communist Party. Following the change their proportion in the parliamentary parties is 19-37 per cent. From the perspective of exercising power, presence in the parties' management is more important than representation within the rank and file. Female involvement in party management varies by party, the usual extent being 10-15 per cent (one to three women). Of the six parties in Parliament three have female vice-presidents (Independent Smallholders' Party (FKGP), Christian Democratic People's Party (KDNP) and Hungarian Socialist Party

(MSZP)). In addition to FKGP, KDNP, MSZP and the Hungarian Democratic Forum (MDF), all four in Parliament, of the parties outside it the Hungarian Social-Democratic Party (MSZDP) has also formed a section on women's issues.

77. Women's limited participation in political decision-making is explained by intertwining social and economic factors. The country's political leadership lacks responsiveness to the issue of female equality. If the question is ever put on the agenda it is to address demographic and family concerns rather than to meet the specific needs of women or the conditions for their development and self-realization. Political parties fail to ensure a wider scope for female involvement in party management or parliamentary work as ministers of parliament. In Hungary's emerging democracy party interests tend to prevail over female concerns, which hinders cooperation between and joint initiatives by the parties' female sections. Apart from young, urban, well-educated groups of society, conventional wisdom is rather conservative and holds women's role in politics dispensable.

78. Conditions for the participation in politics are determined by their education and employment situation. Against a background of worsening living conditions and excessive burdens on the male population, women once again tend to be preoccupied in managing household finances, an increasingly difficult thing to do, while allowing little time for caring for the family or for leisure. Under these circumstances, the women's movement still lacks the strength to grow into a factor influencing society and politics. Most women tend to have a passive attitude to politics and have no need for active participation. Those who do feel they should address society's concerns are hamstrung by the masculine nature of the world of politics, which prevents women from building their career on women's interests.

F. Women in education and the economy

1. Education

79. The level of general education of women reaches, and in young age groups, even exceeds, that of men. In 1990, just as in 1980, in the 15-year-old and older brackets those without schooling represented 1.2 per cent. That includes a somewhat higher female than male proportion (1.4 per cent versus 0.9 per cent). There is no difference between men and women in terms of what percentage completes compulsory education by the age of 19 years (it is equally 94 per cent). Typical education routes part after primary schooling. Some 37 per cent of students pursue their secondary studies in apprentice schools specializing in a particular occupational area with no degree in general studies and only vocational qualifications. Grammar schools and secondary vocational schools, with both issuing degrees in general studies, are becoming increasingly popular. Girls typically choose grammar schools (two thirds of grammar school students are girls), white boys tend to continue their studies in apprentice schools (here boys represent two thirds of students). There is marked segregation by gender of various occupations, e.g., girls prevail in health care and in secondary commercial studies, while boys dominate heavy industry and construction occupations. This is not a consequence of institutionalized discrimination, rather, it is a matter of parents' and children's preference.

80. In the 1993/94 academic year, 52 per cent of university and college students were females. In 1980/81 both sexes were represented in equal numbers in higher education. This means that women have equal opportunities to obtain higher degrees. The percentage of female students significantly varies by faculty. The lowest proportion they represent is in technical colleges and universities (18 per cent). On the other hand, in medical schools female students continue to outnumber males. The situation is rather similar at the faculties of law. All this suggests that there is no formal obstacle to women's acquiring high-prestige qualifications. Women also dominate special education (98 per cent), primary school teacher training (90 per cent), and secondary school teacher training (66 per cent). In all types of schools the overall majority of staff are qualified teachers.

2. Social mobility of women

81. Of the complexities of social mobility hereby we focus only on tendencies in occupational mobility. According to mobility figures between 1973 and 1983, female mobility between generations grew to an extent where by the early 1980s it exceeded men's mobility. The 1983 mobility survey revealed that 73 per cent of men and 76 per cent of women belonged to social segments different from their fathers. This is explained by the slowing down of changes in the structure of occupations with male prevalence, while in the case of women changes continued at the same rate. Between 1983 and 1992, both men's and women's mobility slightly increased, 75 per cent of men and 78 per cent of women being mobile. However, the effects the change of the political system has on mobility are not possible to identify yet.

82. Among women in managerial positions or coming from families of intellectuals, the percentage of those remaining in this segment of society has been steadily rising, which is not the case with men. The reason for continued increase is that in 1992 42 per cent of the daughters of men in managerial positions or working as intellectuals became managers or intellectuals themselves, versus 28 per cent in 1973. This tendency is particularly strong among middle-aged women, while there is an increasing number of young women who leave the segment of intellectuals. Since the early 1980s there has been a steady decline in the number of those with a working-class background entering the intellectual group. At the same time there has been a rise in the movement into the small business sector. The emergence of businesswomen is a new development.

3. Women in the economy and businesses

83. There has been a long-standing split of 48 and 52 per cent of males and females in the general population, respectively. The proportion of working-aged males and females is inverted (52 per cent males, 48 per cent females). Having said that, women represent 50 per cent of full-time active earners. In cohorts assembled by ILO standards (15-74 years), 55 per cent of those in employment were males and 47 per cent were females at the end of 1994.

84. Therefore women's involvement in the economy has remained high. The proportion of women in agriculture, industry and construction and the services sector is 34, 40 and 59 per cent, respectively. Within services, of those working in health care and social work women represent 76 per cent, and in commerce 66 per cent. In other words, there exist female-dominated occupations.

85. The small business sector provides livelihood for women to a growing extent. In 1993, over 20 per cent of earners worked in small businesses (including sole traders). Women tend to have an increasing share in small business operations. As figures in 1988 showed, there proportion among full-time business-operators was slightly under one third in the competitive sector alone, which number rose to nearly two fifths by 1993.

86. There were 217,000 female sole traders in 1993. In partnerships another 37,000 female proprietors have been registered. The proportion of women in sole proprietorships is higher (over 40 per cent) than in partnerships, where female owners represent a mere 30 per cent. Most of them, however, are in business as a sideline activity.

87. The proportion of women among those involved in sideline activities is relatively high. While only 37 per cent of full-time sole traders are women, in case of sole proprietors on pension they are in majority with 56 per cent. Also, over 43 per cent of women in regular state employment operate in businesses.

88. Women typically run businesses quite different from those owned by men. They prefer areas involving limited capital investment and hence a reduced risk, such as renting out property, or retail trade other than shopkeeping, where they do outnumber men. They are also active in catering where family resources can be used efficiently. They also tend to operate as shopkeepers, though to a limited extent. They prefer to set up shop in areas involving reduced risk, and also growth, a well as ensuring safe livelihood rather than high profits.

89. Undoubtedly, this attitude is typical of the majority of Hungarians involved in businesses, which however applies almost exclusively to women.

4. Status of women in the labour market

90. Following the socialist transformation. Hungary's social policy was aimed at establishing full employment. In the human, social and economic spheres there has led to re-evaluating its achievements, some of which have proved worth preserving, while others require revising. In early 1980, 88 per cent of the male labour force and 82 per cent of women were in employment, or associated with cooperatives. These figures also include the self-employed. However, historical conditions determined the way full employment was achieved. They led to a maximized but wasteful allocation of available human resources in the existing social framework, leaving no room for alternative forms of employment. (Ninety-five per cent of active earners were hired by large-scale operations of the public sector, in which 2 per cent of both genders worked on a part-time basis.)

91. The continued expansion of employment was based on two interests determined by socio-economic factors. One was the fundamental interest of the active-aged population in finding and retaining employment as a precondition of their entitlement for welfare, which was the other source of livelihood. Also, having a job spared one the stigma, and the resulting disadvantages, attached to being a "workshirker". The other was the interest of large-scale employers, insensitive to manufacturing and running costs, in overstaffing and keeping work intensity low. This resulted in women's economic activity (86 per cent) exceeding men's (85 per cent), which was unprecedented even by international comparison.

92. The labour market has been undergoing dramatic changes in the 1990s. Since 1990 the number of those in work has dropped by 1,460,000, which is a decline of over 25 per cent. Half of the reduction has concerned women, which has brought down the female employment rate from 49.5 per cent to 38 per cent. The same is true of the male labour force.

Tendencies in female employment

93. Recent years have seen a substantial decline in female employment in the case of both active-aged women and those outside the age of employability. Albeit in relative rather than absolute terms, the drop concerns the latter more than the former.

94. While in the 1980s an average 85 per cent of 15-54-year-old females were working (which in the Hungarian system includes those receiving some form of child-care support), this figure fell to 82.5 per cent by 1990, and dropped as low as 63.5 per cent by 1995. Massive unemployment is only part of the reason. They also include recent measures aimed at encouraging labour force outflows from the world of work. For instance, there have emerged various forms of early retirement; mothers raising over three children can choose to stay at home on a modest income until the youngest has turned eight; child-care allowance recipients have risen in number because of reduced chances in the labour market; there is an increasing number of young people staying longer in secondary education, and higher education enrolment ceilings have been raised.

95. Another major factor linked to shrinking employment, apart from the employability age, is the displacement of female pensioners from the labour market. The number of women over the age of 54 years having to work in the absence of pension entitlement was 156,000 in 1980, and 100,000 in 1985. It further dropped to 66,000, and later to 32,000, in 1990 and 1994 respectively. The decline was even sharper in the case of female pensioners in work. Their number peaked at 220,000 in the mid-1980s, a period of acute labour shortage, which translated into over 8 per cent of all female employees doing mainly part-time work while drawing pension. By now this figure has shrunk to 100,000, which is under 5 per cent of all female earners. The reason for this is that laying off retired staff first was less conflictual, and those made redundant this way could hardly find re-employment.

96. Despite the steady decline in female employment, its rate continues to exceed those in advanced market economies, even against the 15-64-year age bracket as a benchmark. However, natural demographic shifts will soon erode

this advantage since the level of employment among women below 25 years of age is significantly lower than in other countries.

97. Large-scale employment shake-ups in the 1990s also affected the occupational structure, including the distribution of women by industry and occupation. The 1980s can be described as the decade of gradual restructuring, given a 20 per cent decrease in female employment in industry and agriculture, coupled with the same rise in services over 10 years. On the other hand, 1990 saw the beginning of a forced adjustment process triggered by industrial decline, primarily in the manufacturing sector. The employment of women in agriculture and industry has fallen to one third and two thirds, respectively, while in services it remained virtually the same.

98. Between 1980 and 1990, the extent of female job cuts in agriculture, as compared with total female employment, dropped by a mere 2 per cent (from 17 per cent to 15 per cent). The same ratio was 6 per cent by 1994. This substantial change is partly explained by major restructuring moves, such as the separation, as stand-alone businesses, of non-farming operations from State farms and cooperatives. A more important reason is a drop in output caused by increased competition, reduced domestic consumption, and the loss of traditional foreign markets. In addition, legislation and various government measures (e.g., land restitution and compulsory sale of cooperatives' property) created uncertainties as to land use and ownership, whose implications still make themselves felt today. As well, emerging agricultural small businesses rely on limited labour, or at least that is what reported staff figures suggest.

99. The employment of women in industry compared with all active female earners has dropped too, although to a lesser degree than in agriculture. It decreased from 35 per cent in 1985 to 30 per cent in 1990, and then further to 24 per cent by early 1994. Recent changes were concentrated between 1992 and 1994, which led to a shift in proportions within the manufacturing sector. This meant an increase in female employment in textile, clothing and leather making, industries already considered typically female.

100. The tertiary sector has absorbed only a fragment of job losses in manufacturing (a mere 200,000 of 700,000 people). Even this modest expansion pointed out the importance of job creative potentials in the services sector. This was manifested in the growth of female employment in services from 49 per cent in 1985 to 55 per cent in 1990, then to 70 per cent by 1994, compared with the total number of female earners.

101. Owing to their preponderance in services, women dominate the public service sector, which offers low pay but sheltered employment, whereas they are underrepresented in the more promising but riskier entrepreneurial sphere. Another major difference from the position of men is that half of women work for 100 per cent State-run employers, compared with only one third of men, while barely 25 per cent of women are hired by fully private companies, which is far below the percentage for men (32 per cent).

102. The fact that women are better educated than men does not ensure them the same advancement opportunities. The higher the rung of the career ladder, the lower the proportion of women. There are fewer female than male managers, and

far more women than men work in low-prestige clerical or unskilled jobs. An important corollary of the inferior position of women in the occupational structure is lower pay than for men, hence reduced sickness, pension, unemployment benefits etc.

103. Women in blue-collar jobs earn 30-40 per cent less than males and in white-collar jobs 50-60 per cent less. Reasons for the income gaps in the two categories differ. While among white-collar employees the gap results from structural differences (including relatively fewer women in managerial positions and many in unskilled clerical jobs, shorter length of service than for males and few women willing to work unsocial hours), in the case of blue-collar jobs these circumstances are only part of the reasons. The rest is explained by discrimination against women.

Part-time employment

104. It is difficult to analyse part-time employment in Hungary since there are no time-series available, and also because this form of employment has always been marginal. At the end of 1985, 1.1 per cent of active earners (52,000 people) were hired on a part-time basis, which translated into 0.5 per cent male and 2 per cent female employees. This ratio ignored pensioners in part-time work, although they numbered 360,000, which was far more than the number of part-timers among active earners. If this figure is included then the proportion of part-time workers (7.7 per cent of the total employed population) is not insignificant.

105. At the turn of the 1990s, 1 per cent of 15-59-year-old men and 3 per cent of 15-54-year-old women worked on a part-time basis. With the number of pensioners in work beginning to drop in this period, the total percentage of part-time employees stood at 6 per cent of the total working population.

106. Since 1992 information on part-time employment has been available from the Central Statistics Office's labour market survey. It has revealed since then that this type of employment continuously loses ground. This is in part explained by the decreasing number of pensioners in paid employment, which was the primary target group for part-time jobs. Having said that, part-time employment is prevalent among the elderly even today. Over two thirds of those choosing part-time work are women, and half of those are pensioners. The generally low level of part-time work and the preponderance of pensioners in it are evidence that there is hardly any example of part-time employment aimed at harmonizing family and employment obligations.

107. That the various forms of subsidized child-care support have been a more attractive alternative is a different matter.

Female unemployment

108. It was not until the late 1980s that the notion of overt unemployment became known. Even in the 1990 census, no more than 24,000 people, including 10,000 women, considered themselves unemployed. That was why massive redundancies, peaking at an all-time high of 700,000 in 1993, came as a shock. Since then the unemployment figure has fallen below 500,000 but that is due to

an increasing number of people becoming inactive rather than re-employment of those concerned. Reduced unemployment has not been coupled with employment growth. On the contrary, the latter has also begun to slow.

109. As in other countries, there are several databases available on unemployment. They all indicate that unemployment hits women to a lesser degree than men. Since 1990, the proportion of women among the registered unemployed has stayed around 40 per cent, whereas they represent close to 50 per cent of those in employment. The Central Statistics Office survey also suggests a 2-3 per cent lower female unemployment rate than for men, which figures were 9.7 per cent and 11.8 per cent in the first quarter of 1993, the period of peaking unemployment, and 7.8 per cent against 12.2 per cent in the first quarter of 1995, respectively. This is surprising because in neighbouring countries the situation is reversed.

110. Women's underrepresentation among the unemployed is explained by the concentration of job losses in industries with male prevalence. At the same time, job opportunities increased in female-dominated industries. In industries hit by heavy job-shedding women were equally affected. For instance, in agriculture and mining the female unemployment rate was 14 per cent and 24 per cent, respectively, which was higher than the male unemployment rate. Since these industries employed few women the extent of their displacement from the labour market was lower than men's. Unemployment in female-dominated industries was low (2 per cent in education, 2.3 per cent in public administration and 3.8 per cent in health care in 1994). They were also characterized by endeavours to raise employment, which was concentrated in trade between 1990-1993, and in financial services in 1993-1994. Women represented two thirds of employees in the former, and three quarters in the latter.

111. Female unemployment figures are lower in every cohort than men's, except the 60-74-year bracket, even if labour market pressures do not concern the younger and the older population in the same way. The biggest challenge is posed by severe youth unemployment, which was close to 25 per cent among 15-19-year-old girls in the first quarter of 1995. This is three times the average female unemployment rate. Unfortunately, boys in the same age range are afflicted even harder, their unemployment rate standing at 34 per cent.

112. The fact that people, clearly mainly women, on child-care leave are considered in work makes female unemployment figures look more favourable. This status provides formal safeguards against unemployment, which is not insignificant for people whose child-care commitments make them the least wanted group in the labour market. This protection, however, will be likely to weaken once recently announced restrictions are effective.

113. That the unemployment rate of women is lower than that of men should not lead one to discount the severity of the problem. All the less so, since chances of re-employment for women are much worse than that for men.

The unemployment insurance system

114. Support for the unemployed and measures to promote re-employment have been governed by legislation since 1991. The Employment Act does not distinguish

between males and females in terms of available support. Under the law, redundant women are entitled to unemployment benefits and early retirement pensions. Those before first employment can receive unemployment benefits.

115. An unemployment benefit is payable to those with at least one year in service over the previous four years and who paid unemployment contributions. Benefit disbursement covers two periods of time. It amounts to 75 per cent and 60 per cent of the average pay in the shorter first and the longer second period, respectively. Its amount cannot be less than 8,600 forint and cannot exceed Ft 18,000 per month. The average unemployment benefit is a monthly Ft 11,000-Ft 12,000, which is close to the minimum wage (Ft 12,200). The unemployment benefit is due for 365 days, which requires proof of four years in service.

116. Women receiving maternity benefits, child-care allowances or child-care benefits are not entitled to unemployment benefits for this period.

117. The early retirement pension provides support for those no more than three years away from the retirement age. Since elderly women, having been made redundant, stand hardly any chance for re-employment, this type of support is aimed to allay their difficulties until they have reached the retirement age. So the conditions of entitlement to early retirement pension include a length of service sufficient for eligibility for old-age pension. Early retirement pension is funded from the Solidarity Fund for the Unemployed, which also finances the unemployment benefit.

118. Young women leaving secondary and higher education, and unable to find jobs can get an unemployment benefit for six months. Its extent is 80 per cent of the lowest amount of the old-age pension, which is Ft 6,720. The unemployed are also assisted with income supplement, another form of support. Under relevant legislation this is due to those whose eligibility for unemployment benefit has expired and their financial and social position entitle them to social assistance.

119. This amount, equalling the benefit for young people entering first employment, is paid by local municipalities for a maximum of 24 months.

G. Women and poverty

120. Poverty in a statistical sense is a category associated with revenue and consumption at a household level, and it may have both absolute and relative interpretation. After analysing household data one comes to realize that the types of household in Hungary most under threat are those of single parents, the unemployed, the disabled or families in which parents bring up four or more children. Many of the poor are retired people or single mothers with one or more children.

121. According to the 1990 census data, 85.8 per cent of the total of 2.9 million families were couple-based families, i.e., they consisted of a husband, a wife or unmarried partners, with perhaps an unmarried child or children. In 11.8 per cent of these 2,446,000 families only the wife was an

active earner, the husband/male partner was either an inactive earner (with almost no exception they were old-age or disability pensioners in their own right) or unemployed or perhaps dependent. In 87.8 per cent of these couples/unmarried partnerships the husband also had his own income and/or pension, while nearly every eighth couple/unmarried partnership depended upon the wife's or the child's income.

122. The above data demonstrate that unemployment has resulted in women having to shoulder burdens so far unknown to them. They have become breadwinners in families in which earlier this function had been mostly the man's duty, i.e., normally the man provided for his family.

123. In families where only one parent lived together with one or several children, in over 80 per cent of the families this one parent was the mother. Of this 80 per cent, equalling almost 361,000 families, there were only 62.2 per cent where the mother was an active earner, in almost a third, mothers were inactive earners (on maternity leave or retired) and in almost every twentieth, they are unemployed or dependent. Of course, in some of these families the child is the breadwinner, yet it is true to say that this type of family has usually significantly lower living standards than those where two people live in partnership.

124. Unemployment as a factor of poverty is gaining more and more ground, and, besides families with disabled heads of family there is an increasing number entering poverty without a single active earner in the entire family.

125. According to the 1990 census data, in 26.5 per cent of the 3.9 million Hungarian households women were the heads of the household. Almost three in five of these households, i.e., 606,000 were ones with a single person. There is no doubt that in Hungary the head of a household is still quite characteristically the man. Yet, it is worthwhile pointing out that while the population is ageing, and the male population having much lower life expectancy statistics than the female, and divorce rates being very high, the ratio of women household heads anticipates a meaningful rise. Moreover, the occurrence of younger female household heads is also expected to become more frequent.

126. According to 1993 data, 5.1 per cent of the population has a monthly income of less than half the average income; the exact figure is 6.2 per cent in households headed by a man and 4.8 per cent in households headed by a woman. In addition to the geographical extension of poverty, the degree of poverty could also be characteristic. In this regard, however, there is no difference depending on the sex of the household head. In either case the so-called poverty gap is 20 per cent.

127. Homelessness - as one of the grave consequences of poverty - first appeared in Hungary as already a mass phenomenon crying for solution in 1989-1990. Social and political changes (unemployment, impoverishment, difficulties of making ends meet, a high rate of family conflicts and divorce, shortage of low-cost State-financed housing, elimination of "workers" homes, etc.) resulted in an increased number of individuals and/or families not having a home of their own. Hungary has about 25,000-30,000 homeless with a growing share of women and

mothers raising a child alone (this latter probably amounts to 4,000-5,000 people).

128. The system for providing for the homeless was established gradually in Hungary starting from 1990. At first there were mostly night shelters and provisional accommodation for men. Significant developments started in 1992 through the erection of mother-and-child homes, crisis homes and women's homes.

129. A quarter of homes for the homeless in operation in 1995 provide shelter for women and children and also families. The provisional system has a total of 1,200 places available in 77 institutions. In the 34 institutions accommodating single women there are 650 places, in the 24 institutions for mothers with children there is accommodation for 330 persons, while the 19 institutions providing shelter in the event of a crisis (mothers beaten up, those fleeing family conflicts in general) can put up 220 persons.

130. Since homelessness is primarily an urban/metropolitan phenomenon, about half of the institutional places for homeless women (600 places) are concentrated in the capital city.

131. Some 50 per cent of the places are operated by civilian organizations (e.g., the Maltese Cross Organization, the Red Cross, foundations, churches), and the other 50 per cent by local governments and their respective institutions (family support centres, child protecting institutions).

H. Violence against women

1. Violent acts inflicted on women

132. Every citizen - and thus every woman - has the right to live in safety and see themselves, their rights and their property protected. Yet, crime has made its way into everyday life, showing a growing tendency over the period under investigation. Criminal acts inflicted on women have more than doubled from 1988 to 1993.

133. A total of 447,222 crimes were reported in Hungary in 1992. The crimes resulted in 268,687 victims, suffering either damage to personal property or bodily harm. Of the victims, 89,468 were women. Over 80 per cent of crimes were committed against property, where compound larceny is most frequently targeted against women. A total of 4,887 women fell victim to violence. It is to be noted that ever since the mid-1980s violent crimes have become more cruel, causing ever more damage and harm.

134. The above statistics may only be properly appreciated if it is borne in mind that not every crime is brought to the attention of the authorities. This is partly so because in many cases the victims do not dare, or do not want, to report.

135. There is also the type of crime to which primarily women fall victim, namely domestic and sexual crime.

136. It is hard to provide a fair assessment of domestic violence in Hungary. There has been no survey targeted at this subject, and sociological investigations and officially published statistics do not disclose data to reveal this particular statistic. Available criminal statistics indicate that one fourth of all women crime victims above 14 years of age in Hungary are victims of domestic violence. Emphasis should be placed on the fact that within domestic violence, crimes against the person, especially homicide, affect two thirds of women crime victims. With respect to bodily harm, 40 per cent of women are victimized within their own homes. In the case of sexual crimes it should be noted that the figures are relatively low partly because the Hungarian penal law does not identify marital rape as a crime. The rise in domestic violence can be measured by the fact that while in 1988 an incidence of domestic violence against women occurred every eight hours, in 1993 one such crime occurred every six and a half hours. One should also note the fact that the actual number of victims is probably significantly higher than current statistics would suggest, since they are based on cases reported to police. The latency of such reports is proved by recent research on rape; such research suggests that only 1 out of 10 cases of rape is reported to police.

137. Current Hungarian penal legislation has no specific provisions to sanction domestic crime, wherefore these crimes are judged and eventually qualified as sanctionable acts (bodily harm, homicide, etc.) purely on the basis of the general rules and definitions of the Hungarian penal code.

138. In respect to sexual crime, the Hungarian penal legislation does not recognize marital rape. According to the current law, violent sexual intercourse and public acts of indecency may only be committed out of wedlock, i.e., such action against the will of the wife during the life partnership does not qualify as a crime.

139. In line with the European pattern, Hungarian family-related legislation provides the opportunity of dissolving a marriage if it has finally and irreversibly broken down. Such dissolution is not associated in the legislation with any specific list of conditions and neither is it conditional upon either party's culpability. The parties may seek the dissolution of the marriage jointly as well as separately. Family-related legislation requires a mandatory reconciliation procedure without which the divorce process may not begin. So, if the wife suffers violence by the hands of the husband, the wife has the possibility of initiating the dissolution of the marriage.

140. Workplace harassment does not appear as a discrete legal case in the current Penal Code, yet, in jurisdictional practice all acts qualifying as belonging under its effect are judged equivalent to defamation through aggression. Apart from that, the perpetrator may be held responsible, for example, for duress, restriction of personal freedom and public acts of indecency.

141. The General Assembly of the United Nations unanimously adopted a resolution in 1985, later a Declaration, which states that Member States should ensure widespread support, such as medical and psychological treatment, to victims of criminal acts, of abuses of power and especially of sexual violence. Yet, until 1991 there was no initiative in Hungary to embrace this task.

142. In 1991, the ESZTER Foundation was established as a civilian initiative with the purpose of supporting victims of sexual violence. The Foundation started its psychotherapeutical out-patient service in late 1994.

143. A grave problem in addition to the shortage of assisting organizations is the total lack of appropriate provision of information and training.

144. On the basis of the above, the Government must very seriously consider what action to take in order to reduce women falling victim to crime and to dishonourable situations, or once it has happened they should be given material assistance.

2. Women in the judicial branch and police organizations

145. Emancipation among the intelligentsia of the Hungarian society has already come about. An unfavourable consequence of this is the full feminization of certain white-collar professions caused by the low remuneration levels of those particular professions and by an economic climate that relies on two breadwinners in a family. This, then, is not a case where women suffer direct disadvantages with regard to men, but one where men leave certain professions that in society are normally allocated to men and the gap they leave behind is filled by women.

146. The lack of sufficient financial and moral recognition in society has led to a point where the judicial profession has become feminized and in certain areas of the profession and at the judicial level, there are virtually exclusively women administering justice.

147. Presently 55.7 per cent of judges at local courts are under 35 years of age, of whom 72 per cent are women and only 28 per cent are men. This ratio is the same between the total number of male and female judges at local courts of justice. The average age of men is 42, that of women 36; 41 per cent of county judges are men with an average age of 51, and 59 per cent are women averaging 46 years of age; and 10 out of the 20 labour courts have only women judges.

148. Some 57 per cent of local courts are under the leadership of men whose average age is 47 years, compared with 43 per cent women with an average age of 43 years.

149. For county courts 81 per cent of the chairpersons are men averaging 49 years of age and 19 per cent are women with an average age of 42.5 years; 57 per cent of deputy chairpersons are men with an average age of 49 years while 43 per cent are women with an average age of 48 years.

150. Some 70 per cent of college leaders are men with an average age of 53 years, while 30 per cent are women averaging 48 years of age.

151. Judges and other employees at courts of justice and attorneys receive their remunerations according to a set promotion plan, whereby any negative discrimination is statutorily excluded.

152. An investigation into the leadership of the feminized judicial profession could perhaps lead to conclusions that there is some sort of discrimination against women when it comes to a leading position in this profession. However, the fact is that women are actually less likely to apply for a leading position, which may be explained by personal reasons rather than by outside circumstances.

153. The ratio of women in the staff of police organizations rose by 4 per cent from 1980 to 1994. Women constituted 25.1 per cent of the total staff of police organizations in 1980 and 29.1 per cent by 1994. These ratios refer to total professional as well as civilian staff. Within the female staff of police organizations the professional staff varies from 5 to 6 per cent during the full period investigated.

I. The effect of international armed conflicts on the status of women (the refugee issue)

154. In 1989, Hungary acceded to the 1951 Geneva Convention relating to the Status of Refugees and the 1967 New York Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees. Hungarian diplomacy sought avenues of cooperation with the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) as early as 1987.

155. Hungary signed the Convention with so-called geographical restriction, which was a possibility provided by the regulations. In simple terms, this means that Hungary applies the regulations of the Convention only to refugees to events in Europe. Through signing the Convention, passing relevant domestic legislation, and creating the system of institutions, Hungary was the first among former socialist countries to join the international mechanism on the refugee issue. In such a short period, the level at which Hungary took care of asylum seekers and of refugees won a great deal of appreciation by European States.

156. Expenses associated with the accommodation of, provision for and assistance to the social integration of refugees and of those given temporary asylum are mostly covered from funds established specifically for this purpose. The amount of this fund is subject to annual jurisdiction. This sum is then supplemented by the assistance provided by UNHCR within the framework of specific programmes.

157. Without the current Yugoslav refugees, the number of asylum seekers has shown a downward tendency since 1991. The problem of Yugoslav refugees seeking refuge in Hungary owing to the war deserves special mention. Between summer 1991 and the end of 1992 over 60,000 Yugoslav refugees were registered by Hungarian authorities. Hungary has received and properly accommodated refugees from the very beginning. The frontiers are kept open so that those arriving in or intending to travel through Hungary to some other receiving country can do so unobstructed. This is done in spite of the fact that neighbouring countries have restricted their conditions of reception.

1. International and domestic statutory regulations

158. In its resolution 3318 (XXIX) of 14 December 1974, containing the Declaration on the Protection of Women and Children in Emergency and Armed Conflict, the General Assembly called upon Member States to observe the provisions of the Declaration. In the 1980s, amidst increasing international attention, the United Nations issued resolutions that provided guidelines on special treatment of women and child refugees owing to their special status. The Executive Committee of the Programme of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees adopted conclusions at its forty-fourth session in 1993 to resolve problems regularly recurring in the case of refugee women. A working group has been formed in accordance with the conclusions with the participation of 15 Member States in which Hungary is the sole representative of the whole Central and Eastern European region.

159. The Constitution of the Hungarian Republic provides the asylum rights of foreign citizens. Although the definitions of the Constitution and those of the Geneva Convention for refugees do not overlap - the Constitution only recognizes the asylum right if persecution has actually taken place, and recognizes partly different reasons as the basis of refugee status, contains no restriction as to the place of the persecution - yet the Hungarian legal system still provides refugee rights at the highest level, providing guarantee for, rather than making distinctions between, the implementation of refugee men, women and children's rights.

160. The most important legal consequence for persons - and thus also for women - recognized as refugees, is that once recognized, they enjoy "protection by the State", whereby they cannot be returned or extradited to the country they have fled from. A person recognized as a refugee enjoys rights almost identical to Hungarian citizens with the difference that they do not have the right to vote, may not fill in a position which by law requires a Hungarian citizen, may at their request be supplied with a "convention" refugee's passport, may be naturalized as a Hungarian citizen at favourable charges and be entitled to free Hungarian language training.

161. The Hungarian Parliament has established a fund to cater for refugees. The allocation of that fund is provided in Act XXVI of 1993 on the Fund for the Assistance of Refugees.

2. The situation of female refugees

162. The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees claims that there are over 23 million people in the world forced to leave their homes. Estimates suggest that 80 per cent of the world's refugees are women and children. Some 70,485 persons fled to Hungary from the former Yugoslavia between 1991 and 1994. Out of the 7,738 registered asylum holders living in Hungary at the end of 1994, 585 women and 506 children lived in camps (602 men), while 1,950 women and 1,605 children (2,490 men) lived outside of camp. Between 65 and 70 per cent of Yugoslav refugees in Hungarian camps are women and children.

163. Women frequently experience persecution differently from men. Women may be persecuted for reasons similar to men but the form may be different (rape, sexual harassment, violation of human rights on a sexual basis). Raping women before they could flee is often used as a weapon in war to humiliate and weaken the men among the enemy. In an extremely subordinate situation in which most women live when refugees, they are much more vulnerable and therefore more exposed to those having physical strength or power. If a woman suffers rape, and the family stays together, it remains a source of constant conflicts, and even more so if a child is born as a result.

164. In the framework of the mental hygiene programmes, 30 per cent of the women in the camps have reported violent acts that they have personally witnessed. The voluntary reports served to alleviate the spiritual trauma and physical suffering experienced while they fled.

165. The receiving States must be prepared for the different treatment of women refugees due to their special situation. Persons conducting the refugee procedure must be aware of the issues arising from sexual, religious and cultural differences, and handle them with due sensitivity and care.

166. Hungarian authorities (i.e., the local offices of the Refugees and Migration Office) have trained women officers and interpreters on staff, even though their number is not commensurate with that of the women refugees. The ratio of female leaders and ordinary staff must be increased by all means among those responsible for the refugee issue. Domestic experience shows that the involvement of experts on the difference of the sexes and social workers in the system greatly promotes the treatment of women and the reduction/alleviation of their socialization and identity-related problems.

167. Those working with women refugees must be specially trained so that they can respond to women's various needs and qualities in a positive manner. This is why the Refugees and Migration Office felt responsible to encourage its staff to familiarize themselves with the UNHCR's People Oriented Planning model - specifically targeted at women refugees - within the framework of its 1995 vocational training programme, and to promote its practical implementation.

168. The Hungarian policy on refugees encourages close cooperation with UNHCR and with non-governmental organizations. The ultimate aim of the joint projects - whose implementation is prepared by research and various surveys - is that the provision for refugees should go beyond the resolution of day-to-day problems and extend its health, social, educational and employment systems and fill in the current gaps. Mental hygiene programmes provide an opportunity to reveal and analyse the reasons of chronic distortions of spiritual processes, thus assisting refugees in forming a vision of their own future.

169. Specific efforts must be made in the framework of these programmes to improve the situation of women taking refuge from war and seeking protection in the country.

III. INTERNATIONAL ASSISTANCE RELATED TO THE STATUS OF WOMEN

170. The national report makes multiple references to the fact that the radical political and economic transition with its grave burdens has directly and unfavourably affected women.

171. There is no doubt that agreements such as the one concluded by Hungary with the World Bank on human resources development, and projects funded by the European Union and the International Labour Organization (ILO) may result in improvements as regards some aspects of the situation of women (e.g., the lowering of women's unemployment through assistance to women's vocational training and retraining). These narrow-scope programmes will not, however, bring about actual material improvement in the situation of women in the entire region, including Hungary, since the status of women may not be regarded in isolation from the overall economic status of these countries.

172. The international community must reach a common understanding that a region may hardly overcome its grave economic difficulties in the short term without international cooperation. Only such comprehensive programmes may offer a solution as would ease the entire transition process in the region rather than just the situation of women. Adopting and implementing international programmes of this nature would coincide with the long-term interests of the developed States by expanding their markets. Most importantly, though, it would prevent the generation of tensions that could result in the destabilization of the countries in the region. Transition-related difficulties do not only lower the standards of social and cultural rights, but may also discredit the values of civil and political rights, i.e., the groundwork of democracy.

173. In accordance with article 2 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, States have undertaken gradually to ensure - relying on both their own efforts and on international assistance and cooperation - economic, social and cultural rights.

174. The Fourth World Conference on Women would render an invaluable service to the Central and Eastern European region, and to women living in the countries of the region if it reminded the international community of its obligation under article 2 of the International Covenant. It could also help if the developed countries immediately realized that Central and Eastern Europe was currently faced with many threats whose elimination with international instruments could speed up the process whereby this region might also contribute to the fight against global difficulties and to the global enforcement of the right to development.

IV. OBJECTIVES TO IMPROVE THE STATUS OF WOMEN

175. As citizens of the Republic of Hungary, men and women have equal rights, but the right to equality is not quite synonymous with equal opportunities. Improving the system, i.e., creating de facto equivalence, requires the following proposals to be taken into account.

176. The presence of women in both political and in public life - at all levels - is excessively low. We therefore:

(a) Move that at both parliamentary and local elections women candidates should appear on parties' lists in greater numbers;

(b) Find it necessary that women should have a more proportionate participation and more active role in all domains of political and public life including more frequent appointments to leading positions;

(c) Initiate that concepts on women's status should become an individual issue in government-level policies;

(d) Encourage that a government organization responsible for women's issues be instituted as soon as possible, and that such an organization should coordinate related duties and tasks and should also act as a mediating body between the Government and the civil society;

(e) Support that a parliamentary subcommittee in charge of women's issues be formed and start operating as soon as possible;

(f) Find it necessary that the civil society assume a more determined role and that women's organizations and movements should enjoy more support and higher level involvement in decision-making through various forms of interest reconciliation.

177. Regarding the role of women in the economy and in enterprises and in the labour market, we:

(a) Move that in order to encourage the best possible knowledge of the situation, those who order or publish or analyse statistics should always provide all data according to gender;

(b) Propose that such governmental concepts be detailed so as to make it possible to carry out individual life strategies concerning employment plans, including flexible work periods, job sharing, and part-time employment;

(c) Find it necessary that in the world of labour and elsewhere, prohibition of discrimination against women be more strongly enforced, either when publishing and evaluating job applications when deciding on promotions or appointing employees in leading positions, as well as when determining wages;

(d) Encourage young women to receive their first vocational qualification within streamline education, thereby reducing their disadvantages in the labour market;

(e) Suggest that the Government upgrade vocational training and retraining in order to prevent the further segregation of the labour market and an increase in women's unemployment.

178. Taking into consideration the disaffected situation of women resulting from a dramatic shrinkage of social benefits:

(a) We move that social policy be placed on a new footing, so that marginalization already present in society may be gradually eliminated and social detachment avoided;

(b) We move that a strategy be drawn up to bring family life and career into harmony, and to encourage the foundation of the relationship of men and women on new family-based partnership;

(c) We move that both men and women be statutorily guaranteed all the benefits available to bringing up a child;

(d) We move that besides recognizing the role of the family there should be just division of labour within the family so that the so-called double load of women may come to an end;

(e) We encourage that the items in the European Commission's Social Charter and Supplementary Protocol be systematically implemented, and that ILO recommendations should have more weight in the Government's decisions.

179. With respect to the health status of the population - and more specifically that of women - and the untenably high abortion rate:

(a) We move that sexual education be more closely integrated in streamline education, the promotion of modern methods of family planning and the upgrading of the activity of organizations for the protection of families and women;

(b) We emphasize the importance of disseminating rules for a healthy lifestyle and the importance of anti-smoking and anti-drug campaigns.

180. Recognizing the highly negative effect on the whole of society of violence against women:

(a) We move that the currently effective statutory regulations of the Penal Code be revised, and that effective propaganda against violence be elaborated and disseminated;

(b) We move that negative social stereotypes so often seen in the media and in public life be gradually eliminated through education and conscientious campaigns;

(c) We move that resolute action be taken against all forms of intolerance, xenophobia, and racism, joining the European Commission's relevant initiatives.

181. Convinced that real democracy is only possible if human rights - and women's rights among them - are observed, and that women's rights as a basic human right must be ensured by all means, we regard all forms of discrimination against women a major source of social tensions and a threat to democracy.

Annex

Statistical information

1. Age composition of population by gender

Population groups		1980		1990		1994	
		Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Children	0-14 years	23.2	20.6	21.9	19.3	19.8	17.4
Young people	15-29 years	23.2	20.9	21.1	18.8	23.5	20.6
Middle-aged	30-59 years	39.0	39.1	41.2	40.2	40.7	39.5
Elderly	60 and 60+	14.6	19.4	15.8	21.7	16.0	22.5
Total		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

2. Number and proportion of men and women by cohort

Cohorts		Males	Females	Women per 1,000 men
		1,000 people		
Children	0-14 years	977.0	933.8	956
Young people	15-29 years	1 156.8	61 105.1	955
Middle-aged	30-59 years	2 002.4	2 116.2	1 057
Elderly	60 and 60+	786.7	1 198.9	1 524
Total		4 922.9	5 354.0	1 087

3. Number and proportion of female members of parliament between 1945 and 1994

Election year	Total members of parliament	Proportion of women (percentage)
1945	357	3.1
1947	372	4.0
1949	402	17.2
1953	453	11.0
1958	338	17.5
1963	340	18.2
1967	349	19.7
1971	352	23.8
1975	352	28.6
1980	352	30.1
1985	387	20.9
1990	386	7.0
1994	386	11.2

4. Proportion of female members of parliament by route to parliament in 1990 and 1994

(In percentages)

Route to parliament	1990	1994
From individual constituencies	2.8	8.7
From regional party lists	8.3	12.7
From national party list	15.5	14.1
Total	7.0	11.2

Males + females = 100 per cent.

5. Breakdown of female members of parliament by route to parliament in 1990 and 1994

(In percentages)

Route to parliament	1990	1994
From individual constituencies	18.5	34.9
From regional party lists	29.6	37.2
From national party list	51.9	27.9
Total (females)	100.0	100.0

6. Enrolment percentages in full-time education

	1980/81			1985/86			1993/94		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Primary schools	98.6	99.1	98.8	97.7	98.7	98.2			
Apprentice schools	40.2	19.9	30.4	38.8	20.5	29.9	33.4	17.8	25.8
Secondary schools	32.9	47.8	40.1	32.9	47.4	40.0	42.2	56.0	48.9
Higher education	9.0	9.4	9.2	9.1	10.7	9.9	12.3	13.9	13.0

7. Number of students in full-time education

	1980/81	1985/86	1993/94
Primary schools total	1 162 203	1 297 818	1 009 416
of which:			
boys	596 960	665 251	515 895
girls	565 243	632 567	493 521
Apprentice schools total	154 096	176 380	174 187
of which:			
boys	105 453	117 502	115 561
girls	48 643	58 878	58 626
Secondary vocational schools total	8 613	9 893	24 672
of which:			
boys	34	68	4 577
girls	8 579	9 771	20 095
Secondary schools total	203 238	236 104	330 586
of which:			
boys	86 202	99 639	146 092
girls	117 036	136 465	184 494
Higher education total	64 057	64 190	103 713
of which:			
boys	32 115	30 627	49 917
girls	31 942	33 563	53 796

8. Breakdown of full-time higher education students by gender and area of study

(In percentages)

	1980		1985		1993	
	of 100 Students					
Areas of study	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Technical (Engineering)	82.1	17.9	83.1	16.9	78.2	21.8
Agriculture	66.6	33.4	66.6	33.4	55.5	44.5
Veterinary	85.0	15.0	83.2	16.8	68.6	31.4
Medical	43.5	56.5	44.4	55.6	51.1	48.9
Health care	8.5	91.5	4.9	95.1	9.8	90.2
Economics	38.5	61.5	33.2	66.8	42.4	57.6
Law	50.3	49.7	42.3	57.7	44.2	55.8
Humanities	27.5	72.5	24.2	75.8	26.8	73.2
Sciences	54.5	45.5	52.1	47.9	56.4	43.6
Teacher training (at college)	24.6	75.4	27.6	72.4	30.4	69.6
Special education	8.9	91.1	6.7	93.3	9.0	91.0
Physical exercise/sports	54.3	45.7	54.3	45.7	57.6	42.4
Primary school teacher training (at college)	11.5	88.5	12.4	87.6	11.4	88.6
Nursery school teacher training (at college)	0.4	99.6	0.8	99.2	1.9	98.1
Arts	48.2	51.8	45.9	54.1	45.2	54.8
Divinity					66.4	33.6
Other					94.8	5.2
Total	50.1	49.9	47.7	52.3	48.1	51.9

9. Proportion of 15-year-old and older population with no education by cohort and gender

	1980			1990		
Cohorts	Males	Females	Together	Males	Females	Together
15-24 yrs	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7
25-44 yrs	0.5	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8
45 and 45+ yrs	0.9	2.3	1.7	1.2	2.1	1.7
Total	0.7	1.5	1.1	0.9	1.4	1.2
Of which:						
Budapest	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.4
Townships	0.5	1.2	0.9	0.7	1.1	0.9
Villages	1.0	2.3	1.7	1.5	2.2	1.8

10. Changes in economic activity of population by gender between 1980 and 1994

Year	Economically active population as % of labour supply	
	Males	Females
1 January 1980	87.9	82.0
1 January 1985	85.3	84.2
1 January 1990	84.8	85.7
1 January 1994	74.6	77.6

11. Number and proportion of women in the three major sectors

Sectors	1980	1985	1990	1994	1980	1985	1990	1994
	1 January		1 000 people		1 January		Proportion %	
Agriculture	458.4	425.5	394.9	126.7	16.9	16.9	14.8	6.0
Industry	1 022.6	921.5	803.9	504.9	37.8	34.4	30.2	24.1
Services	1 225.9	1 303.8	1 462.3	1 464.2	45.3	48.7	55.0	69.9
Total	2 706.9	2 677.8	2 661.1	2 095.8	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

12. Proportion of part-time employees in major cohorts

Cohorts	1992			1994		
	Males	Females	Together	Males	Females	Together
15-19 yrs	1.5	1.9	1.7	0.4	2.5	1.4
20-24 yrs	0.7	1.3	1.0	0.2	0.7	0.4
25-29 yrs	0.2	1.1	0.7	0.2	1.2	0.7
30-39 yrs	0.2	1.2	0.7	0.1	1.2	0.6
40-54 yrs	0.3	0.9	0.6	0.3	0.7	0.5
55-59 yrs	1.6	11.7	4.8	1.2	9.3	3.8
60-74 yrs	17.4	23.5	20.0	12.3	20.6	14.0
Total	1.1	2.1	1.6	0.6	1.7	1.1

13. Number and proportion of registered unemployed between 1990 and 1994

Year	Registered unemployed		Unemployment rate
	1 000 people	Proportion of females (%)	
1990 January	23.4	41.3	0.6
1990 June	43.5	41.4	0.9
1991 January	100.5	38.8	2.1
1991 June	185.6	39.6	3.9
1992 January	442.5	39.8	8.2
1992 June	546.7	41.2	10.1
1993 January	694.0	41.4	13.3
1993 June	657.3	41.2	12.6
1994 January	640.9	39.7	12.8
1994 June	549.9	41.6	11.0
1994 November	522.4	42.6	10.4

14. Unemployment rates by gender between 1992 and 1994

Period		Males	Females	Together
1992.	1st Quarter	10.3	7.3	8.9
	2nd Quarter	10.5	7.7	9.1
	3rd Quarter	10.7	8.2	9.5
	4th Quarter	11.3	8	9.7
1993.	1st Quarter	13.8	9.7	11.8
	2nd Quarter	13.2	9.1	11.2
	3rd Quarter	13.0	9.3	11.3
	4th Quarter	12.6	8.9	10.9
1994.	1st Quarter	12.8	8.7	10.9
	2nd Quarter	11.7	8.4	10.1
	3rd Quarter	11.1	8.3	9.8
	4th Quarter	11.3	8	9.7

15. Gross monthly average pay of full-time employees

(national economy average)

(In forints)

	1990	1993
Blue collars		
Men	12 167	23 321
Women	8 603	16 645
Together	10 892	20 856
White collars		
Men	21 647	48 455
Women	14 893	30 387
Together	17 809	36 832
Total		
Men	14 845	30 106
Women	11 634	23 964
Together	13 446	27 173

16. Monthly average pay of full-time employees by gender

Sector of economy	Monthly average pay of				Male average pay as % of female average in 1993
	Males	Females	Males	Females	
	in Ft a/ 1993		As % of pay in 1992 and 1993		
			GROSS		
Agriculture, forestry, fishery	26 872	23 309	120.8	119.5	115.3
Industry	36 940	26 219	127.1	128.4	140.9
Construction	26 875	28 640	120.9	131.7	93.8
Trade, vehicle repair and maintenance	38 080	31 873	121.4	120.2	119.5
Hotel and catering	31 472	26 128	117.6	137.4	120.5
Transportation, warehousing, post and telecommunications	30 650	26 445	119.5	118.1	115.9
Financial and related services	71 932	48 294	118.5	125.8	148.9
Realty, leasing services for businesses	38 232	33 365	119.8	128.0	114.6
Public administration and social insurance administration	37 752	33 803	119.0	104.1	111.7
Education	33 945	26 849	104.5	107.2	126.4
Health care and social assistance	30 663	26 233	112.1	121.3	116.9
Other community services	39 494	29 639	125.3	125.0	133.3
Total	35 518	30 270	121.9	121.8	117.3
			NET		
Total	22 819	20 061	117.7	117.7	113.7

a/ Ft = forints.

17. Monthly average pay of full-time blue-collar employees by gender

Sector of economy	Monthly average pay of				Male average pay as % of female average in 1993
	Males	Females	Males	Females	
	in Ft a/ 1993		As % of pay in 1992 and 1993		
			GROSS		
Agriculture, forestry, fishery	19 032	16 002	118.3	122.1	118.9
Industry	29 426	19 473	125.1	125.1	151.1
Construction	21 834	16 368	118.1	132.6	133.4
Trade, vehicle repair and maintenance	23 026	19 985	119.1	121.6	115.2
Hotel and catering	23 010	18 779	110.3	138.7	122.5
Transportation, warehousing, post and telecommunications	26 151	18 743	117.5	113.7	139.5
Financial and related services	37 034	27 512	119.7	126.4	134.6
Realty, leasing services for businesses	22 265	17 954	112.9	121.7	124.0
Public administration and social insurance administration	28 746	25 342	124.8	94.9	113.4
Education	21 319	17 381	101.3	113.5	122.7
Health care and social assistance	24 325	21 624	110.6	125.6	112.5
Other community services	28 865	17 023	122.6	129.1	169.6
Total	26 603	19 854	120.6	120.7	134.0
			NET		
Total	18 199	14 492	116.5	116.9	125.6

a/ Ft = forints.

18. Monthly average pay of full-time white-collar employees by gender

Sector of economy	Monthly average pay of				Male average pay as % of female average in 1993
	Males	Females	Males	Females	
	in Ft a/ 1993		As % of pay in 1992 and 1993		
			GROSS		
Agriculture, forestry, fishery	45 363	31 934	129.9	124.6	142.1
Industry	62 887	36 900	127.9	131.1	170.4
Construction	57 682	33 872	124.6	131.5	170.3
Trade, vehicle repair and maintenance	64 657	41 387	120.6	119.7	156.2
Hotel and catering	55 864	37 655	132.0	125.4	148.4
Transportation, warehousing, post and telecommunications	46 848	30 272	122.6	118.4	154.8
Financial and related services	76 903	49 056	118.5	125.7	156.8
Realty, leasing services for businesses	55 212	39 206	125.1	128.5	140.8
Public administration and social insurance administration	47 102	36 322	115.0	105.0	129.7
Education	38 654	29 364	107.7	106.3	131.6
Health care and social assistance	42 227	29 882	115.9	121.1	141.3
Other community services	56 020	37 681	126.3	120.1	148.7
Total	53 278	36 393	120.4	119.8	146.4
			NET		
Total	32 022	23 335	116.8	116.1	137.2

a/ Ft = forints.

19. Proportion of active women by family household type

Family household type		Proportion of household types		Proportion of active women	
		Family household	Single-family household	Family household	Single-family household
Couple with no children		23.5	35.6	10.6	13.5
2 Parents	1 child	13.6	20.6	19.8	25.0
	2 children	17.0	25.7	29.9	38.0
	3 children	3.4	5.1	6.4	8.2
1 Parent	1 child	5.1	7.7	5.0	6.4
	2 children	1.9	2.9	3.4	4.3
	3 children	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.3
1 or 2 parents		1.1	1.7	2.6	3.3
Total single-family households		66.1	100.0	78.7	100.0
One-person households		21.5		3.2	
Other		12.4		18.1	
Total households		100.0		100.0	

20. National breakdown by family type of active women in single-family households and in families with under Ft 4500 monthly per capita income

Family types (single-family households without relatives)	Breakdown of active women: Total single-family households — Number	Total single-family households — Proportion	Single-family households with under Ft 4500 monthly per capita income — Number	Single-family households with under Ft 4500 monthly per capita income — Proportion	Column 3 divided by column 1
Couple with no children	1 797	13.5	88	3.9	5
2 parents 1 child	3 333	25.0	405	17.7	12
2 parents 2 children	5 054	38.0	938	41.0	18
2 parents 3 children	1 090	8.2	373	16.3	34
1 parent 1 child	853	6.4	53	2.3	6
1 parent 2 children	578	4.3	160	7.0	28
1 parent 3 children	170	1.3	69	3.0	40
4 or 4+ children	444	3.3	201	8.8	45
Total	13 319	100.0	2 287	100.0	17

21. Breakdown by family type of active-aged women as a percentage of total and under Ft 4500 per capita monthly income single-family households

Family types (single-family households without relatives)	Active-aged women in single-family households			
	Total	Unemployed		
			Unemployment rate	
	Breakdown %	Breakdown %	Total families	Low-income families
Couple with no children	13.5	8.7	6.4	6.6
2 parents 1 child	25.0	24.3	9.3	21.1
2 parents 2 children	38.0	40.1	10.2	23.6
2 parents 3 children	8.2	9.7	16.9	25.7
1 parent 1 child	6.4	6.9	9.3	20.9
1 parent 2 children	4.3	5.2	11.4	9.8
1 parent 3 children	1.3	1.7	14.9	5.9
4 or 4+ children	3.3	3.4	18.8	24.1
Total	100.0	100.0 a/	10.0	20.3

a/ Some 6 per cent of women in single-family households are unemployed.

22. Breakdown by family type of active-aged unemployed women living with unemployed family members as a percentage of total and low-income single-family households

Family types (single-family households without relatives)	Active-aged women with unemployed family members: Total single-family households — Number	Breakdown %	Single-family households with under Ft 4500 per capita income monthly — Number	Breakdown %	Column 3 divided by column 1
Couple with no children	178	7.4	11	1.8	6
2 parents 1 child	573	2.4	111	17.9	19
2 parents 2 children	989	41.2	302	48.6	30
2 parents 3 children	273	11.4	78	12.5	28
1 parent 1 child	102	4.3	14	2.3	14
1 parent 2 children	108	4.5	26	4.2	24
1 parent 3 children	40	1.7	15	2.4	38
4 or 4+ children	133	5.5	64	10.3	48
Total	2 396	100.0 a/	621	100.0 b/	26

a/ Some 18 per cent of women in single-family households live in families with unemployed members.

b/ Some 27 per cent of women in single-family households with under Ft 4500 per capita monthly income live in families with unemployed members.

23. Breakdown of active-aged women by family status of unemployed member

	Active-aged women living with unemployed family member				
	Total single-family households		Single-family households with under Ft 4500 monthly per capita income		
Status of unemployed	Number	Breakdown %	Number	Breakdown %	Column 3 divided by column 1 (%)
Head of household	1 065	35.4	300	35.8	28
Wife spouse	618	20.5	186	22.2	30
Child	810	26.8	199	23.7	25
2 unemployed	399	13.2	118	14.1	30
Other	123	4.1	35	4.2	28
Total	3 015	100.0	838	100.0	28

24. Women crime victims in Hungary

	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993
I. Crimes against the person						
Women crime victims over 14 years of age	2 789	2 905	3 157	3 370	3 654	3 688
Of this victims of domestic crimes	971	916	985	922	1 075	1 101
	35%	32%	31%	27%	29%	30%
1. Homicide women crime						
Women crime victims over 14 years of age	145	109	107	141	143	153
Of this victims of domestic crimes	101	76	59	81	80	91
	70%	70%	55%	57%	56%	63%
2. Assault						
Women crime victims over 14 years of age	1 733	1 811	2 003	1 945	2 143	2 239
Of this victims of domestic crime	795	763	833	731	881	903
	45%	42%	41%	37%	41%	40%
II. Sexual crimes						
Women crime victims over 14 years of age	369	390	390	388	376	346
Of this victims of domestic crimes	11	10	5	8	4	11
	3%	3%	1%	2%	1%	3%
III. Hooliganism						
Women crime victims over 14 years of age	824	894	986	1 207	1 330	1 482
Of this victims of domestic crimes	107	125	123	160	166	213
	13%	14%	12%	13%	12%	14%
IV. Total						
Women crime victims over 14 years of age	3 982	4 189	4 533	4 965	5 360	5 516
Of this victims of domestic crimes	1 089	1 051	1 113	1 090	1 245	1 325
	27%	28%	25%	22%	23%	24%
Crime Clock (hour/crime) of domestic violence against women	8.0	8.3	7.9	8.0	7.0	6.6

Notes:

1. The statistics include only the so-called major crimes and only those where the offender became known to the police.

2. Domestic crime means that the victim is the wife (partner) or the ex-wife (ex-partner) of the offender.

25. Judges and senior court officials broken down by gender between 1981 and 1993

	Senior court officials					Judges					
Year	Staff	Males	%	Females	%	Staff	Males	%	Females	%	Total
1981	264	215	81.44	49	18.56	1 066	457	42.87	609	57.13	1 330
1985	266	199	74.81	67	25.19	1 118	439	39.27	679	60.73	1 384
1990	252	162	64.29	90	35.71	1 312	438	33.38	874	66.62	1 564
1993	273	159	58.24	114	41.76	1 560	521	33.40	1 039	66.60	1 833

26. Number and proportion of women in police forces

Year	Professional	Civil staff	Total	As % of total staff
1980	1 836	9 367	11 203	25.10
1981	1 939	10 009	11 948	26.20
1982	2 003	9 683	11 686	25.50
1983	2 301	9 814	12 115	26.10
1984	2 261	8 598	10 859	23.60
1985	2 168	10 125	12 293	26.20
1994	2 465	14 079	16 544	29.10

27. Number and percentage of female officers in the armed forces

	1992		1993		1994	
Total female commissioned officers	376	2.80%	389	3.00%	465	3.60%
Non-commissioned officers	974	11.50%	1 013	12.00%	1 163	12.30%
Total females	1 350	6.20%	1 482	6.70%	1 628	7.30%

Highest female rank in 1993: Colonel (three medical doctors)

28. Typical female skill areas in the armed forces

(As a percentage of total commissioned and non-commissioned staff)

Health care units	25
Administration	15
Military administration	12
Logistics, supplies	11
Signal troops, radio coms	11
Finance, accounting	8
Personnel	8
Other (lawyers, psychologists, trainers)	10

29. Breakdown of female commissioned officers by rank, 1993

Existing ranks	Commissioned officers (Percentage)
2nd Lieutenant	0.3
Lieutenant	18.5
Senior lieutenant	33.6
Captain	24.9
Major	13.9
Lieutenant-Colonel	8.0
Colonel	0.8
Total	100.0

30. Breakdown of female non-commissioned officers by rank, 1993

Existing ranks	Non-commissioned officers (Percentage)
Corporal	0.4
Sergeant	15.9
Staff sergeant	31.0
Senior staff sergeant	37.0
Warrant officer II	14.1
Warrant officer	1.6
Total	100.0